

CHANGING ACCEPTABLE OCCUPATIONS
FOR MILITARY AND CIVILIAN WOMEN:
THE EFFECTS OF TWO WORLD WARS

Mary Lou Calene

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

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THESIS

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FOR MILITARY AND CIVILIAN WOMEN:
THE EFFECTS OF TWO WORLD WARS

by

Mary Lou Calene

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W. J. Haga

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Changing Acceptable Occupations for Military and
Civilian Women: The Effects of Two World Wars

by

Mary Lou Calene
Commander, United States Navy
B.A., University of California at Los Angeles, 1957

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ABSTRACT

The perception of what are considered acceptable occupations for women has changed considerably over the last century, just as the role of women in American homelife has changed. This thesis researches the changing role of American women and the effects of this changed role on occupations outside the home, with emphasis on the long-term effects for military and civilian women of a crisis situation brought about by World Wars I and II. The effects of industrialization on women's roles is explored as well as the effects of modern day pressures on the employer to change past hiring practices. Some predictions for good occupational opportunities for women in the future are also cited.



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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent times, particularly since 1970, there has been considerable publicity concerning "new" occupations for women. For example, there have been stories on women truck drivers, women working in coal mines, women in a myriad of apprenticeships, women on the New York Stock Exchange, women presidents of corporations, women governors, congressional representatives and mayors, and in the military, women driving heavy construction vehicles, women serving as chaplains, women bosunmates, and women flying planes.

Many of these stories concern "first" women in a particular field. Almost all concern an occupational area that was seldom considered by either men or women as a socially acceptable means of employment for women.

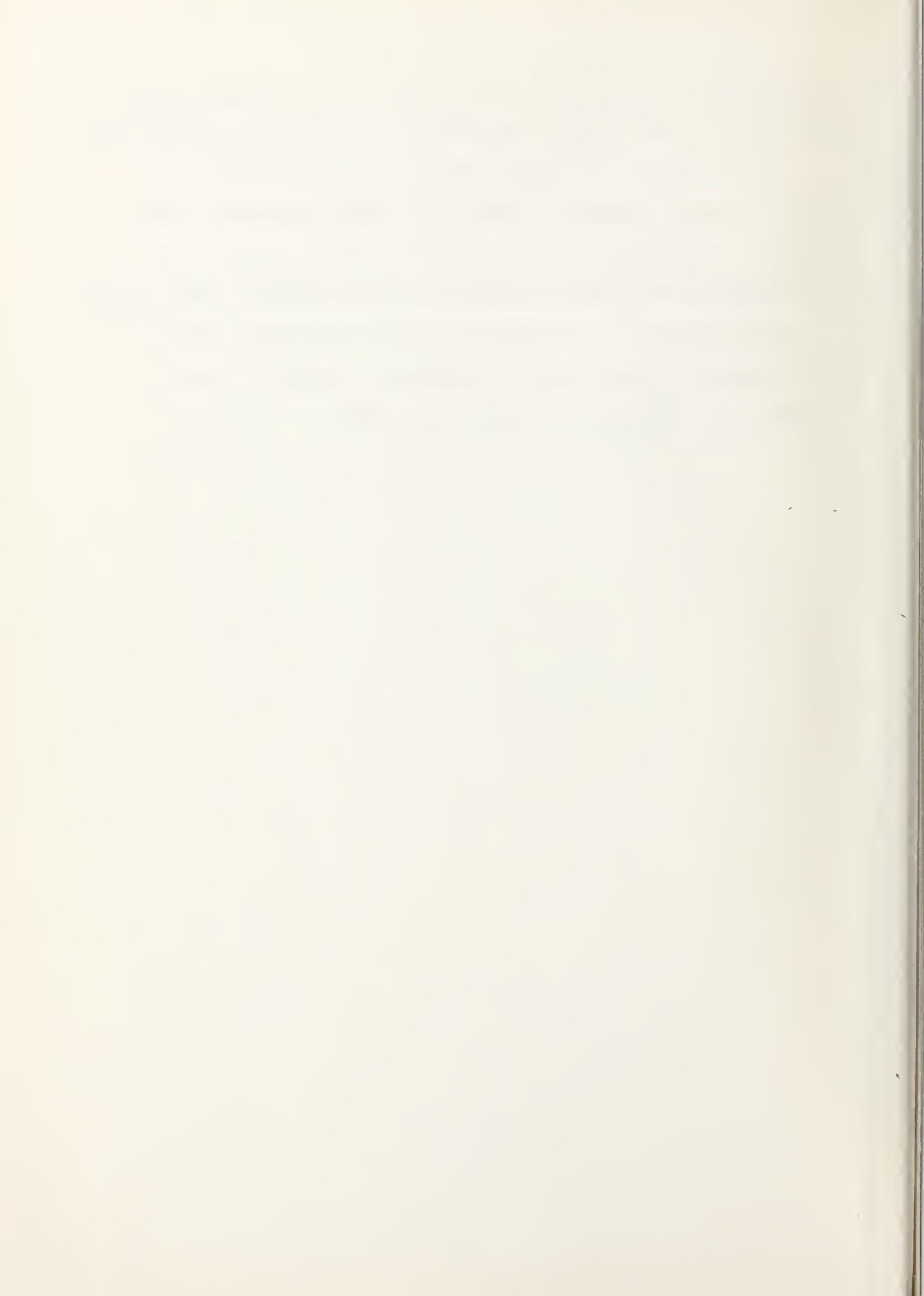
The entry of women into previously "male" occupations has placed many men in the position of working with, or for, women for the first time. The Navy makes an interesting case to review in this respect. Until the Second World War, a Naval Officer spent most of his career at sea, and his infrequent shore assignments might well be spent in a totally male environment. Today, the number of women serving in the military and in civilian government employment has changed that situation. It would now be almost impossible for a male Naval Officer to serve a full career



without interacting with either military or civilian women, or both, in supervisory, subordinate or peer group situations.

Why do women work today? Why is it possible for them to find such a variety of jobs? Has the role women have played in American society changed in recent years? Has the changing environment had an effect on women's employment?

This thesis will investigate these questions, looking for reasons for employment of women in the past to help understand the present occupational trends.



II. ROLES OF AMERICAN WOMEN

A. PRE-INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

During the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries life in this developing country made it necessary that each member of a community perform an economic function. Thus, as Lerner [1969] reports, work for women outside the home was regarded as a civic duty. Single women were expected to help their husbands on the farm or in the family trade. Women made cloth, clothing, shoes and other articles needed by the family. They also served as butchers, silversmiths, gunsmiths, upholsterers, mill operators, sextons, journalists, printers, shop keepers, and apothecaries. Training was acquired through apprenticeship, frequently within their own families.

Since much of this work was done in the family business or was to assist the survival of the community, there generally was no actual pay involved. Nor did the job necessarily offer status in the community. Status for women came from their family, or from the men they married.

The conditions were similar in both the North and South. Although the South was generally looked upon as a slave economy, Altbach [1974] noted that only 30 percent of the families in the South could afford slaves and the actual work life of most white women in the South differed little



from that of women in the North. Even the plantation owner's wife normally worked as an overseer of food and goods production.

Until the beginning of the nineteenth century, many manufacturing processes that were later done in factories were carried out by women as household routines. It has been noted by Myrdal and Klein [1956] that women in pre-industrial society enhanced their economic value through the bearing of numerous children. In those days, children were not considered a liability as additional mouths to feed, but were assets as additional hands to help earn the family income.

Today the husband normally works away from the home. In pre-industrial society, however, men worked on the farm or in the family trade and the wife was considered his co-worker. Although the wife had the responsibilities of the home, and the husband those of the farm or trade, some have noted [Degler, 1964, Rose, 1951] that there was frequently a certain amount of overlap in this sexual division of labor. For example, when it was time for harvest, the wife worked in the fields, and in winter the husband assisted in various projects around the home. This interchange of work provided interests for women beyond the home and resulted in a partnership.

B. CHANGES WITH INDUSTRIALIZATION

The coming of machine production changed the life style and working conditions of both men and women. By the middle



of the nineteenth century the majority of industrial labor was male. Married women worked in industry only in the case of economic necessity, usually as a result of the death or incapacitation of the husband.

As husbands moved off the farm and out of the family trade, the wife normally remained at home, separated from the previous close association during working hours with the husband or other adults. This psychological separation of the division of labor had considerable effect on the wife which will be discussed in a later section.

Single women began to work for pay in business and industry as early as 1820. The reasons for single women working were basically economic, and employment for women was not generally socially acceptable at first. Laird [1942] reports one of the earliest plans for employing women with factory owners at Lowell, Massachusetts who began an unusual system of combining work in the factory with educational courses of a finishing-school type. This start towards respectable (and acceptable) work in industry for women lasted only fifteen years until stopped by a strike. After this period, the first really notable utilization of women in industry occurred about the time of the Civil War.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, there was an increasing proportion of single women in this country. As the percent of women in the population increased, the certainty that all women would marry decreased. Parents became concerned with providing daughters as well as sons with some



means of support. Some have claimed [Ridley, 1968] that the issue of support for daughters changed the concept of education for women. Families became concerned with providing an adequate education for daughters to enable them to earn a respectable livelihood if such were necessary. This was particularly true for middle class families.

Lower class families found the wages of the daughter to be of assistance until she married. However, industrialization soon changed the value of children in the society, particularly for the lower class. Where there was a need for additional labor children were frequently employed. This practice was later stopped by legislation. Where once additional mouths to feed had been regarded as an asset for the farm family, industrialization meant that large families became a burden for the poorer sections of the country.

Industrialization also changed other economic aspects for the family. Before the arrival of the machine age, women worked in their homes to produce the food and clothing for their family's needs. With the production of the industrial age, it was frequently cheaper and easier to purchase the majority of the family needs. Petersen [1964] noted that at this point, cash became a major need. A self-perpetuating system began to evolve with factories needing more workers, which in turn encouraged more women to work to earn the cash to buy the factory produced products, the sale of which of course encouraged industry to produce more products.



In summary, by the end of the nineteenth century, the role of the single woman in both middle and lower class was work, or at least be trained to work at some occupation. For married women of the middle class, work was basically confined to the home. Married women of the lower class worked in the home or family trade, or when necessary in industry. The family economic situation was the major motivator for women to work outside the home.

C. THE MODERN ERA HOMEMAKER ROLE

In 1968 Lewis noted that the largest single occupational category in the country was homemaking, although the ratio was declining at that time. Current societal and technological changes have offered more opportunities for women to work, for pay, outside the home than ever before in history. To understand why some women want to work, it is also necessary to understand that not every woman wants an outside-the-home occupation. Many women are quite content to remain homemakers exclusively, and maintain that they are happy and satisfied with homemaking as their only occupation.

The homemaker's problems include such things as the low status normally given to housework, a lack of rewards for job completion (no promotion, no pay, no social recognition), a total monetary dependency on the husband, a feeling of social isolation, and a decline in the importance of the job as the homemaker ages. Some authorities [Lewis, 1968]



consider that in spite of the high frustration brought about by the problems of homemaking, many women are well satisfied. The approval of husband and children serve as indicators that they are doing a good job.

Others dispute the "happy homemaker" role [Bruton, 1947, Myrdal and Klein, 1956], as self-fulfilling for women. Their viewpoint is that even the best mother subconsciously resents never being paid, promoted or given social recognition for the well-done job. What's more, the rising living standards and labor-saving devices available made domestic routine irksome for the housewife.

The lack of agreement of the effects of the full-time homemaker role is still apparent today. However, one of the most important insights on the homemaker/motherhood role was made by Rossi who noted that today, " . . . for the first time in the history of any known society, motherhood has become a full-time occupation for adult women." [1964: 167]. The women of the pre-industrial period, working on the farm and in the family trade were not full-time mothers or housewives in the modern day sense. The necessity of their participation in their husband's occupation made them productive members of the adult economic world. As Kuhn [1973] has noted, when the husband moved into industry, the wife was left at home with children to tend, and no significant work to replace her previous economic accomplishments.



D. FACTORS LEADING TO WORK OUTSIDE THE HOME

There were a number of factors that encouraged more women to decide to enter the labor force. In the case of single women, economic factors generally prevailed, where she was required to provide her own support, or the support of dependent family members. For the married women, as noted previously, there might be a pressing need for cash, if the income of the husband was not sufficient to cover the basic expenses.

Other factors that led to work outside the home included urbanization, education, mechanization, increasing longevity, and changing family life styles. Urbanization, the increasing movement of families from the farms and rural towns to the industrial areas, resulted in changed living conditions. Without the produce formerly family grown, a cash income became increasingly important. This urgent need for cash helped in establishing more liberal attitudes within the family towards employment for daughters and wives.

Mechanization and automation resulted in a time bonus for most women. The Chinese laundry, and later the family owned automatic washer-dryer resulted in considerable time savings in doing the family wash. The development of canned, frozen and freeze dried foods resulted in time savings in food preparation. Automatic appliances were developed to warm the baby's bottle, wash the dishes, and entertain the children, resulting in still more time for the homemaker. There were two main effects from mechanization. The homemaker with more time on her hands sometimes elected to find



interests outside the home to avoid boredom. And, secondly, the issue of cash again was a factor, for cash was necessary for purchase of the labor (time) saving devices.

The Department of Labor [1969] determined that there was a direct relationship between the educational attainment of women and their labor force participation. The more education a woman received, the greater the likelihood that she would be engaged in paid employment. Some [Petersen, 1964], relate this to education providing individuals with an interest in fields beyond the home. Others [Myrdal and Klein, 1956] considered that children and home while emotionally satisfying were not mentally stimulating. Therefore, the more education the woman has, the more isolated from other interests she may feel if she is confined to the home. If the homemaker role is defined as, by Lewis [1968], a domestic role, a glamour role and a good companion role all in one person, then these roles may not be sufficient for many of today's educated women.

As American society became more urban and affluent, previous homemaker responsibilities such as child training, recreational activities for the family, and care of the aged and ill within the home were considerably alleviated. Schools took over much of child training, youth groups provided recreational activities and the aged and ill were more and more confined to homes for the elderly and to hospitals. The homemaker again had more time for other activities if desired. And perhaps even more important,



any interests the homemaker had developed in these types of tasks went unfulfilled. One result was for some homemakers to look for outside work, in schools, hospitals, or totally unrelated fields, to occupy her time and provide satisfaction.

A variety of twentieth century circumstances have also aided women to seek outside employment. For example, women are marrying at an earlier age and having smaller families, so that by the time the youngest child is entering school the woman may still be under 30 years of age. Additionally, there has been a considerable increase in the average life span where a woman can now expect to live beyond 70 years. The life span for the man continues to be several years less, and divorce rates continue to increase. Women in some cases have considered work outside the home as security against an uncertain future or as a hedge against daytime loneliness where homemaking is not challenging or where there was too much "free" time.

Another twentieth century change has been the widening choice of jobs that gradually opened to women. This was particularly true after World Wars I and II when some occupations opened to women by necessity during the war remained open to them in the peacetime economy. The wartime circumstances and the changes that evolved in women's occupations will be discussed in a later chapter.

Finally, the changing economy and rising standard of living has been a major factor in women seeking occupations outside the home. In this century, the rising standards

have resulted in increasing refinements in the material aspects of daily life and increasing emphasis on education. The increasing emphasis on the "good life" can be considered a part of all the previously listed factors. More education leads to better jobs. Better jobs lead to increased wages. Increased wages lead to more affluent life styles. More affluent life styles lead to more emphasis on education by the parents and so forth.

These factors leading to occupations outside the home were summed up [Kyrk, 1947] as "the pull and the push." Women entered the labor market not just because it became possible to do so. They entered in response to the pull of attractive opportunities or the push of economic necessity. It took a greater pull or push to get women into the labor market if home conditions were not favorable, and a lesser force if conditions facilitated. The immediate cause, however, was the attractiveness of the job opportunity, or, the need for the money that the job would provide.

E. THE "FEMININE" OCCUPATIONS

Outside of the housewife/motherhood roles, several occupations have been described as "feminine" occupations. Some [Hedges, 1970] consider these occupations basically as extensions of the work women have traditionally performed in the home. In 1970, there were more than 250 distinct occupations listed in the Bureau of Census tabulations, but half of all women workers were employed in just 5 of them--

secretary, household worker, bookkeeper, elementary school teacher, and waitress. All of these occupations can be seen as extensions of the housewife role.

Others [Epstein, 1970] consider that the feminine occupations are based on characteristics that women are supposed to have more of than men--such as the people-oriented traits of helping, nurturing, and empathizing. She listed teaching, nursing and social work as falling in those categories.

The extension of the home role, and the traits considered feminine are complimentary associations that have channeled women into a limited number of occupational fields. For a number of years, the majority of employment opportunities for women have been in the fields listed in Table 1.

One view of this concentration of women [Park, 1973] is that the continued entry of women into specific fields resulted in a self-fulfilling prophecy. In other words, the more women in the occupation, the smaller number of men that will apply, and as a result, it becomes a "feminine" occupation.

Another view [Robie, 1973] says that women's attitudes favor remaining within the "feminine" market for fear that crossing into the so-called "male" occupations will result in unhappiness or failure in their "feminine" family role. Others [Anderson and Tersine, 1973] state that it is tradition rather than actual job content that has resulted in certain occupations being reserved for women and others for men. Still others [Kahne, 1973] note that today there is a trend for men to enter these "feminine" occupations.

Table 1

Occupations in Which Women Were Three-Fourths or More of Total Employed, 1969

Occupations with 100,000 or more women		Occupations with less than 100,000 women.	
WOMEN WERE 90 PERCENT OR MORE OF TOTAL EMPLOYED		WOMEN WERE 80 TO 89 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Housekeepers (private household)	Nurses (student)	Hairdressers and cosmetologists	Boarding and lodging house keepers
Nurses (professional)	Laundresses (private household)	Waitresses	Librarians
Receptionists	Attendants (physicians' and dentists' offices)	Teachers (elementary school)	
Babysitters	Dietitians and nutritionists	File clerks	
Chambermaids and maids (except private household)	Demonstrators	Bookkeepers	
Secretaries	Milliners	Housekeepers and stewardesses (except private household)	
Dressmakers and seamstresses (except factory)			
Private household workers (n.e.c.)			
Telephone operators			
Stenographers			
Practical nurses			
Typists			
Sewers and stitchers (mfg.)			

Table 1 (cont.)

Occupations with 100,000 or more women	Occupations with less than 100,000 women
WOMEN WERE 75 TO 79 PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED	
Cashiers	Spinners (textile)
Operatives (apparel and accessories)	Dancers and dancing teachers
	Attendants and assistants (library)
	Operatives (knitting mills)
	Midwives

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "U.S. Census of Population: 1960. Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(1)--1D." 1963.

From: 1969 Handbook on Women Workers

That there are occupations designated as "feminine" is well documented, and their typing as "feminine" can be traced back to the home. However, times of crisis in military and economic areas may, in Holter's [1972] opinion, break down the cultural norms and ideals pertaining to men's and women's tasks. The current trend for men to enter "feminine" occupations such as elementary school teaching may be a result of the anti-military stand during the Vietnam war, or at the present time may be a response to the current economic dilemma which has resulted in large-scale unemployment. The current trend of entrance of women into "male" occupations may stem from wartime occupations, and from economic desires to get into higher paying jobs.

F. ROLE CHOICE

Children are brought up in their respective sex roles. The interests of boys and girls do not seem to be inborn but depend in large measure on socialization. One authority [Musgrave, 1967] refers to the occupational socialization as the building up of a role map of society so that the child can locate occupational names and can know the role prescriptions associated with these names.

The socialization agents for the child which aid in building this role map towards "feminine" or "masculine" occupations are the family, the school and the peer group. In the family, the girl learns her sex role and comes to see possible work roles . . . housewife, mother's outside employment, and so forth. The school plays a part through

the type of work and play programs. (Is Jane always striving to be a nurse while Bill becomes a lawyer, etc.?) And the peer group may form the way the child thinks about the issue of work itself through play and the interchange of ideas.

Where the mother works outside the home and where her attitude towards doing so is positive, she presents a picture to her children of outside work as socially acceptable. Recent research [Klemmack and Edwards, 1973] found that where employed mothers work by choice they present a favorable role model to their children. The possibilities that female children will be employed following their own marriages was increased. It should also follow that husbands who had mothers who were successfully employed may be more willing to see their own wives, and daughters in the labor force.

In summary, types of occupations women, and men, strive for or consider socially acceptable are a result of learning experiences in childhood. Indeed, the acceptability of work at all, and particularly work after marriage is influenced by the homelife during the school years. The living conditions in the American home have changed radically over the last century and the role of women has changed at the same time. The next chapter will investigate the rapid changes that took place during the First and Second World Wars when the demand for workers in the more "masculine" occupations was greater than the supply of men available for such work. The occupational roles of women changed rapidly then when they were hired to meet the demand.

III. WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS IN WARTIME

A. INTRODUCTION

As noted previously, a crisis such as a major war will modify the social norms of a population. The needs of the military and of industry during World Wars I and II resulted in substantial changes in the types of occupations that were acceptable for women. Women as members of the military offer an interesting example of some changing occupations for women.

The history of women as actual members of the military goes back to World War I. Moreover, women accounted for only three percent of the Armed Services during the Second World War and since 1945 have been less than two percent of the active force. However, the active duty occupations, particularly during the Second World War, were in many cases unique for women of that time.

Women joined the civilian labor force in large numbers during the wars. For example, women in the civilian labor force increased by more than 5.5 million between 1940 and 1945. Again, many of these women worked in totally unique occupations. Their wartime experiences had a positive effect on many women for later employment, and for specific types of occupations.

B. WORLD WAR I

1. Women in the Military

As early as 1775, semiofficial groups of civilian women served with the military in a variety of positions such as cooks, canteen workers, nurses, and seamstresses. Recognition of the value of the nursing care provided by the volunteers in the Civil War and by trained nurses employed under contract in the Spanish-American War led to the establishment of the Army Nurse Corps in 1901 and the Navy Nurse Corps in 1908 as components of the military.

Other than nurses, women were not part of the military in the United States until the First World War. It is true that in the early history of this country several women, disguised as men, served with the Armed Forces, but they were not recognized as members of the services. The admittance of women into the military services followed a number of developments. According to Coates and Pellegrin [1965] these developments were:

(1) the development of occupational skills by women in the civilian labor force of relevance to military operations;

(2) changes in the nature of warfare and in military organization which would put a premium upon skills possessed by women; and

(3) modifications of traditional attitudes toward the "proper" roles for women in society.

By the beginning of World War I women had come to dominate certain occupations such as secretarial work and the operation of telephone exchanges. The need arose for personnel in these occupations to handle the demand from

headquarters and the naval shore establishments as the war approached. To meet the demand, and since there was nothing in the Navy personnel laws against it, women were enlisted in the Navy as Yeomen (F), or as known informally, "Yeomanettes." Later about 300 Marinettes, or feminine enlisted personnel of the Marine Corps served at Headquarters, Marine Corps and on recruiting duty.

During the First World War some 12,000 Yeomanettes served in occupations such as translators, draftsmen, fingerprint experts, camouflage designers, and recruiters, in addition to the clerical and telephone billets. The general idea behind their service was that women could serve in order to release enlisted men for sea duty. The occupations for women in the Navy during World War I cannot really be considered as differing greatly from the standard "women's" occupations of that era. However, the fact that women had successfully served as members of the Armed Forces was of major significance, providing a precedent when the needs of World War II arose.

2. Women in Civilian Occupations

The civilian manpower shortages during World War I did not lead to an unusually high reliance on women. However, some communities with war production facilities had such heavy losses of men who joined the Armed Forces that they found it necessary to hire women to help meet the increasing wartime demands on their industries. Women also went into such jobs as ticket collectors in local transportation companies, and

into high school teaching, both previously dominated by men. Women were used for the first time in war-related industries such as powder and ordnance plants and other industrial plants where unskilled manual labor was required, frequently under disagreeable working conditions.

Following the war, the Department of Labor [1923] noted that the war emergencies had forced manufacturers to spend time and money to train women to meet pressing war needs. Their evaluation was that the facts showed that women could render as good a service in machine shops (men's occupations) as in the clothing industries (women's occupations).

Three decades later [1951] the Department of Labor evaluation of women's employment during World War I was: (1) the popular belief that women rendered real service to the nation during the war was sustained, (2) the labor shortage and excessive demands on war industries resulted in a sharp increase in women workers during the war and a marked decrease in the number of women workers in traditional women-employing industries, and (3) the success of this emergency employment of women in occupations requiring high degrees of skill resulted in the retention of women in most of the crafts and industries.

Not all agree with the item that women remained in the crafts and industries, however, The National Manpower Council review of the impact of the First World War on women in occupations concluded that the twenty months that

the United States was engaged in World War was, " . . . long enough to modify traditional patterns of 'men's' and 'women's' work, but too short to produce permanent changes in women's employment." [Womanpower, 1957: 144]. Basically, the differences in opinion were that some women who performed well in industry during the war desired to, and were able to keep their jobs. However, the general availability of the newer occupational areas for new hiring of women was very small indeed.

B. WORLD WAR II

1. Women in the Military

The need for increased military forces at the start of World War II again resulted in the utilization of women in the military services. This time the Congress backed the services' requests through legislation authorizing women in all branches of the military. Within six months of the entry of the United States into World War II, the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps was established, followed by the Navy WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) in late July 1942. The focus of this section will be primarily on the WAVES.

During the Second World War, some 350,000 women saw active military duty with 65,000 serving overseas. Of this total active military, there were about 100,000 in the WAVES and 14,000 in the Navy Nurse Corps. The development of shortages in many skilled occupations very early in the war resulted in the services utilizing women not only in

the areas of the pre-war "feminine" specializations, but also to supplement the available manpower in other occupations. The fact that women in the service performed as well or in some cases better than servicemen led to a complete reversal of policy. Most assignment areas were opened to women except for those where women were unsuited for physical or social reasons, or where women were prohibited by law, for example, combat duty.

From the original assignments in 1942, where women were primarily assigned to administrative work, women moved into a variety of Naval occupations hardly considered conventional in those days. For instance, the August 1945 issue of ALL HANDS reported the following: Eighty WAVE officers became the first women officers entitled to serve as members of the military air crews in any U. S. military organization. They will serve in crews flying to such points as Hawaii and the Aleutians . . . Two women officers have been appointed to serve in the Civil Engineer Corps . . . The laboratory at the Indian Head powder plant, where much of U. S. rocket propellant is tested is completely operated by women, where WAVES man one of the two firing bays and do about half the computation on ballistics."

Women Naval officers served in a multitude of other occupational fields during World War II, from Air Traffic Control to Intelligence; from Hydrographic work to Linotype Operators to Cartographers; and from Radar Operators to Electronics Instructors. Enlisted women served in such

unusual occupations (for women) as Offset Press Operators, Barbers, Parachute Riggers, Aviation Metalsmiths, and Aviation Free Gunnery Instructors. (See Appendix I and II for complete listing).

The experience of the Second World War proved as some have said [Arbogast, 1973] that women could and did play an important role within the Armed Forces. During the course of the war, the number of jobs for women increased at least 40 fold. This increase was partly a reflection of the nation's economy where women were filling more types of occupations as the country became more pressed to use any available labor to turn out the needed goods and services.

Following the war, a small nucleus of women was retained on active duty and in June 1948, Congress authorized women to join the regular ranks of the Army and Navy. Coates and Pellegrin [1965] note that the four principal justifications that were advanced by advocates of retaining women in the Armed Forces in peacetime were the following:

- (1) women have certain occupational skills in which few men are competent--that is, since few men are skilled in some "women's occupations," and since women are better suited to some jobs than are men, economy and efficiency are enhanced by having women to perform such duties;

- (2) service women should be kept on duty as a nucleus of a larger force which could be created rapidly in the event of national emergency and ensuing mobilization;

- (3) experimentation during peacetime with the assignments of women could lead to effective utilization of larger numbers of women in times of emergency; and

- (4) women could help fill recruiting shortages.

2. Women in Civilian Occupations

a. Types of Occupations

As was the case in World War I, the Second World War opened up new opportunities to women in industrial and other fields. Some of the occupational fields open to women for the first time included shipyard repair work; practically all jobs in the aircraft industry; assembling, machine operating, testing, inspecting, packing and wrapping of war plant materials; riveting, welding and blueprint reading. Women also replaced men on drill presses, milling machines, lathes, punch and forming presses and other machine tools.

Although management was initially hesitant to make the assignments, women of necessity were eventually utilized in supervisory functions in such places as textile, electronics and ammunitions plants. In addition, some women were able to gain access to better jobs by taking advantage of the scientific, engineering and management courses that were sponsored by the government. In less than four years, the government alone trained more than two million women for war jobs. At colleges operating under the War Training program, 235,000 women were trained for technical or professional jobs in various war industries.

Women worked in almost every field and industry of the day. The reason for this use was simply a case of supply and demand. The demand for labor was high, but with the men called to serve in the military, the main supply available to meet the demand was women. It was noted at the

time [Bradley, 1944] that in addition to holding and successfully accomplishing these wartime occupations, women were also working to keep up their homes or to set up new ones.

b. Effects of Wartime Employment

The urgent requirements in industry resulted in many women being hired immediately upon application for the first job they asked about. Consequently, many women who first worked during World War II never really had the opportunity to discover that there were jobs supposedly designated men's occupations and others designated for women. If industry needed a riveter, a woman might be hired for the job. "Rosie the Riveter" was given a job to do that paid a reasonable wage, in most cases, for the times. In addition, "Rosie" found that in many cases she enjoyed working, even to wanting to continue in the job after the war. And some have noted [Bird, 1968] that as victory approached, more women found reasons why they should keep on working. Some polls taken found as many as two out of three women war workers stating that they desired permanent jobs.

The war helped to alter the traditional beliefs of women, particularly married women, toward paid employment. It proved to many women that it was possible for them to handle their responsibilities at home and at the same time handle a full time job. And not to be underestimated was the satisfaction that many found in bringing home a sizeable pay check every week. Many women also found their jobs to be interesting, and for some, far more enjoyable than housework.

Employers also found their pre-war beliefs had changed. The previously imagined difficulties that the employment of women would bring about had no foundation. In some cases the employers found that for certain types of work women were more productive and profitable employees than were men. Some long-standing myths that married women would have high absentee rates had proved untrue.

One of the important effects of the Second World War was on "Rosie's" children. For the first time in this country, there were large numbers of children growing up in an atmosphere where it was not only acceptable for the mother to work, but it was considered essential in many cases. Family economics combined with the patriotic emphasis of the day served to give approval to new family life styles. Additionally, mother was working at a variety of occupations that her children would never before have considered available to women. "Rosie" would in Musgrave's [1967] terms be acting as a role model, for it is in the family that children learn their sex roles and come to see themselves as males or females with particular work expectations. Psathas [1968] elaborates by commenting that for daughters the fact that mother worked and the type of work she did provided motivations and role models. If mother worked while the children were still in the home, a specific model for her daughters to follow would emerge.

The National Manpower Council study "Womanpower" [1957: 166] provides a summary of the effects of the Second

World War for women workers:

World War II helped accelerate long-run changes in the role of women workers in the American economy. It raised fundamental doubts concerning conventional notions about women and their suitability for work. It proved that there were relatively few jobs which they could not perform because of limitations of strength or unyielding social attitudes. It demonstrated that with proper training they could readily reach acceptable and in many cases superior levels of performance. It provided a small number of women with opportunities to rise to positions of authority in which they were effective. Most important, perhaps, World War II made it possible for a large number of women to combine marriage and work, and many found that they preferred this pattern of life.

IV. EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS FOR WOMEN TODAY

A. EARLY POSTWAR EMPLOYMENT

Although many women war workers desired to remain in industry after the end of the Second World War, there were numerous problems facing them. Many women had developed work skills no longer needed in the peacetime environment. Others did not have the necessary seniority to retain their jobs as men being mustered out of the military returned to civilian industry. When this occurred, the tendency was for women still desiring employment to return to the types of employment available for women before the war. These jobs, limited in availability, were primarily in clerical, sales or service jobs; fields that many women trained in other skills no longer desired.

Those jobs that were available to women being occupationally relocated after the war frequently paid lower rates than the wartime jobs. Also, many women had entered the labor force at an older age than usual for new entrants (many were 35 years of age or older). Finding new jobs for these older women who had only wartime work experience proved difficult.

In summary, many more women desired post-war employment than jobs were available for them. Those jobs that were available were in the more traditional women's occupations, did not use the newly gained skills, and had pay rates

less than the wartime jobs. However, 27.6 percent of all workers in 1947 were women, and 29.1 percent in 1950 were women. This compares with 25.4 percent in 1940, and indicates that some women who desired postwar employment were successful in remaining in industry.

B. INCREASING NUMBERS OF WORKING WOMEN

There were about 29.2 million women in the labor force in 1968. This figure exceeded by about 9 million the wartime employment peak when there had been around 20 million women workers 16 years of age or over. This figure compares with about 5 million women workers at the turn of the century and with a pre-war figure of just under 14 million in 1940.

The proportion of women in the workforce in comparison to men has also increased. In 1900 women were 18 percent of all workers; in 1940, 25 percent, and at the end of the war, 36 percent. The number dropped to 28 percent following the war and then started to climb again. In 1969, 37 percent of all workers were women.

C. FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS TODAY

The last three decades have been years of extraordinary economic and social change for the status of women. According to Waldman and McEaddy [1974], these changes include: the tremendous response of married women to labor market demand; an increasingly service-oriented economy which in particular needed more white-collar workers; changing attitudes towards careers for women outside the home; the trend toward smaller

families; the large increase in the number of households headed by women; and landmark legislation prohibiting employment discrimination based on sex.

Some of the pressures that have effected these changes are referred to by Helson [1972] as the emphasis on population control with the contraceptive revolution making smaller families more likely, and the strength of anti-establishment ideology noticed particularly in the new sophistication in exposing discrimination which women have used to further their own cause.

A number of changes took place from 1920 to 1970. Paid job opportunities opened slightly in the 1920's. World War II in the forties and the shift in employment from goods to services in the fifties provided many more opportunities. By 1956, white-collar jobs had become more prevalent than blue-collar jobs. The population movement of families from the farms to the cities brought women to where job opportunities were developing. The rapidly increasing demand for labor in the late 1960's brought women with young children into the labor force and by early 1970 working women represented 42 percent of all women 16 years and over in the population, close to double the proportion for 1920.

Today nearly 2 out of every 5 American workers are women. Most are married and half are over 39 years old. As Oppenheimer [1970] has noted, increasingly work is becoming an important and continuing part of women's lives, not just before they marry and start raising children.

The U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau printed the following facts in "Women Workers Today" [1973]:

Age--A woman is most likely to be working if she is young and has finished her schooling or if she is mature (35 to 54) and has no young children.

Marital status--Almost three-fifths (58 percent) of all women workers are married and living with their husbands; more than one-fifth (23 percent) are single; and nearly one-fifth (19 percent) are widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands.

Education--Nearly 7 out of 10 women workers have at least a high school education, and 1 out of 9 is a college graduate. Generally, the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to be in the labor force.

Race--About one-eighth of all women workers are of minority races. The labor force participation rates of minority women are generally higher than those of white women.

Husband's income--A married woman is most apt to be working if her husband's income is between \$7,000 and \$9,999; 48 percent of such women work. She is least apt to be working if her husband's income is below \$5,000 or is \$10,000 or over (37 and 39 percent, respectively).

[U.S. Dept of Labor 1973, p. 2-5]

Additional U. S. Labor Department information, "Twenty Facts of Women Workers," is contained in Appendix III.

D. THE DEMANDS OF THE 1970's FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Many authorities consider the increasing proportion of married women in the labor force to be of major economic importance. Cain [1966] for example, considers that attention to the work patterns of married women is necessary for a full understanding of many important problems such as economic growth and the cyclical behavior of national income, the personal distribution of income and birth rates.

This is not to ignore the importance of the single women in the labor force, but as noted previously, single women have been a part of the labor force for a considerable period of time. Since they must normally support themselves they represent a relatively stable group whose total numbers should not vary to any large extent.

The demands for labor in 1974 in this country exceeded considerably the supply of men and single women. When this happens the next step for continued economic growth is the integration of women in other circumstances into the labor force. On the other hand, when the desire to work for economic or other reasons happens where there are insufficient jobs for women available, it can be expected that there will be rising pressures to break out of the traditional female occupations and into male occupations.

An interesting change in recent years that has added pressure for women to move into the male occupational areas has been the decreasing availability of positions in some of the women's traditional fields. This has been caused by an over-supply of women in past years entering certain occupations and as noted previously, by the increasing numbers of men moving into some of these fields. Elementary school teaching is a prime example of an occupation suffering from over supply in many locations.

In 1973, the Department of Labor (Careers for Women in the 70's) predicted that the occupational group with the highest growth rate between 1970 and 1980 would be that of

professional and technical workers, where the increase is estimated to be 39 percent. Following that will be service workers (35 percent), clerical workers (26 percent), sales workers (24 percent), craftsmen and foremen (20 percent), managers and administrators (15 percent), and operatives (11 percent). A decline in the demand for elementary and secondary school teachers was anticipated.

The Department of Labor recommends that women consider changing their career aspects if they conflict with the estimated occupational growth predictions since the openings in some of the usual women's occupations will not be sufficient to supply jobs for all women seeking work. In other words, the demands for women workers in the 1970's will be high, but they may not be in the traditional fields with the heaviest employment of women in past years.

The demands of the 1970's for women workers will be effected by the supply of women desiring or available to work. The major variables according to Kreps [1971] affecting the supply of working wives are: the income of the husband, the wife's level of education, and her age (which reflects the likelihood of the presence of small children).

The demands for additional workers by industry, and the demands of women for different types of work in industry will be investigated in the next chapter.

V. "NEW" OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN TODAY

A. INTRODUCTION

The considerable rise in employment for women in this country in the past few decades has been accompanied by an increase in the number and variety of occupational opportunities. The growing services to individuals and communities has resulted in new opportunities in the health and allied medical fields, in public and private social services, in research and educational services, in personal services, and in data processing and computer programming. Automation in various businesses has expanded the need for technical and clerical personnel. As a result the number of women in new fields of employment is expanding despite the fact that women are still concentrated generally in those occupations previously defined as "women's."

The purpose of this chapter is to list some new occupations women are entering today, occupations that are in fact in many cases being recommended to women as the types of occupations that it would be to their advantage to consider for career purposes.

B. GOOD OPPORTUNITIES

In 1974 Robinson interviewed a broadly representative group of employers of women and Labor Department officials, who predicted ten job areas that will recruit heavily and

offer good pay and an opportunity for advancement in the future. These job areas are: (1) local and state police officers, (2) construction trades (carpenters, plumbers, pipefitters, electricians), (3) computer operators, programmers and systems analysts, (4) medical technicians and technologists, (5) business economics, (6) accounting, (7) civil service--city, state and federal, (8) engineering, (9) manufacturing and wholesale trade sales, and (10) the Armed Services. Two of these job areas will be discussed separately--construction trades (apprenticeship programs), and the Armed Services.

The Department of Labor has given publicity to several occupations as good opportunities through the magazine MANPOWER. Articles by Marshall [197] and DeVivo [1973] emphasized such occupations as truckdrivers, production line workers, contractors, foresters, professional umpires and sportswriters, nuclear project engineers, veterinarians, auto repair technicians, lathe operators and forklift operators.

Women with college degrees frequently find that the only positions open to them in the businesses they are interested in require "secretarial training." Many have complained that if they accept these jobs they find it hard to move beyond the secretarial duties even when they are well qualified in technical and/or managerial areas.

However, others such as Roesch [1967] consider that the secretarial training can act as a foot-in-the-door to

other opportunities. In other words, once in the organization additional training plus previous background and the drive to get into other areas may pay off. Secretarial work could be considered in some cases almost in the category of an apprenticeship program.

C. APPRENTICESHIP PROGRAMS

Many of the occupations currently recommended for women as areas of possible employment and good prospects for the future require specific training, some in an apprenticeship program. It would be overly optimistic to believe that women can move easily into these fields. It has been found, however, that some women have been able to move into these occupations, and their success there, coupled with the growing need for women in these occupations, will provide good possibilities for employment in the future for women who can handle these physically demanding jobs.

As previously noted, manpower projections for the 1970's point to the skilled trades and jobs that require apprenticeship training as areas of rapid employment increase. As a route out of the traditional female jobs--many of which are dead end and low paying--women are increasingly seeking entry into well-paying craft jobs which provide opportunities for advancement and for job satisfaction. The Department of Labor reported in June 1974 that today employers are recruiting, training and employing women for the skilled trades in a situation reminiscent of the World War II production years.

Apprenticeship programs for women have been relatively few in recent years as indicated by a Wisconsin survey in 1970 which showed 82.4 percent of all women apprentices in that state were in the cosmetology field, a field dominated by women. By March 1973, thanks to an aggressive program to get women into other apprenticeship areas, 48 percent were in the cosmetology field while the remaining 52 percent were in a variety of new fields previously unavailable to women.

Apprenticeship programs in other than the traditional women's occupational fields are just beginning to have an impact on employment for women. Many barriers will have to be worked on as the Wisconsin program reported before apprenticeship programs will be readily available to women in areas considered male occupations. Continuing need for workers in these areas will provide the main push to get women into these programs.

D. MILITARY OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN

Probably no group has received more publicity in the last year or two than the military when it comes to the opening of "new" occupations for women. As discussed earlier, however, in Chapter III, many of these so-called new occupations had already been done by women during the Second World War. This paper will consider mainly Navy occupations, however, the same circumstances hold true for the other services. For example, BGEN Bailey, the Director of the Women's Army Corps said in 1973 [Pogrebin interview: 44],

During World War II, women were mechanics, and truck drivers; we held lots of jobs that were considered unladylike but acceptable in an emergency. After the war, the WAC'S responded to public opinion, which insisted that women again become ladylike. But we always knew the variety of jobs women can do, and now that public opinion has changed, women are doing them.

The Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women concurred with BGEN Bailey [1974]. Their study found that following World War II military women were withdrawn from jobs that they had performed well during the war, with the reasoning that the public would not accept women in some jobs in peacetime that had been quite acceptable during the wartime emergency. In the past few years, however, the services have been reevaluating every rule, law, regulation, and policy that treats men and women differently. As a result, today most occupations not prohibited by law are open to women, although the numbers entering many of these fields are limited. In the next Chapter some of the pressures that stimulated these changes will be investigated.

For the Navy the authorization for major changes in occupations was promulgated by Z-Gram 116 in August 1972. Among the changes directed by the Chief of Naval Operations were: (1) to authorize limited entry of enlisted women into all ratings, (2) to assign a limited number of women officers and enlisted women to the ship's company of the USS SANCTUARY (a hospital ship) as a pilot program, expected to provide valuable planning information regarding the prospective increased utilization of women at sea, (3) to suspend restrictions regarding women succeeding to command ashore and

assign women to command positions, (4) to open the Naval Reserve Officer Training Corps (NROTC) program to women, and (5) to open the Chaplain and Civil Engineer Corps to women officers. These changes coupled with the program to train women as Naval Aviators significantly increased the types of occupations available to women in the Navy.

To list all the occupational fields women in the Navy are now filling is not appropriate here, since the entry of women into many of these areas has not been finalized. Further, success of women in all of the jobs available has not been fully tested. As Purcell noted [1974] however, the programs outlined in Z-Gram 116 have been implemented with apparent success. Additionally, historical evidence from the Second World War showed high rates of success for the utilization of women in new fields of interest to them. Similar success can be anticipated today in the utilization of women in the areas of their new interests, and where there is a growing need for their services.

VI. PRESSURES FOR OCCUPATIONAL CHANGE

As noted by Klemmack and Edwards [1973], at least on an impressionistic basis, there is reason to believe that there are dramatic changes occurring, the Women's Liberation movement being only one, which are influencing female occupational aspirations and hence altering the desirability of stereotypically feminine occupations. Women's Liberation has perhaps done its biggest service to occupational stratification by raising the consciousness level of American women to the discrepancies in pay between men's and women's occupations. The pay issue alone has encouraged many women to push for jobs in areas previously closed to them. A good example is the mother, head-of-household who recently went to work in the coal mines. The point is not that she likes work in the coal mines, she in fact doesn't. But she is physically qualified for the work and it pays the best wage in her town. What she likes is the opportunity to compete for and to work on a job that best helps her support her family.

Another modern pressure that is influencing occupational change for women is the All-Volunteer force concept for the military services. In order to meet the numbers necessary for the All-Volunteer Armed Forces to be a success, the quotas for women in the military services have been

drastically increased. In 1971, women accounted for about one enlistment in 40. Today the ratio is one in 13 and officials say that next year it will be one in twelve. By July, 1977, more than 100,000 women are expected to be in uniform. The personnel strength of Women in the Navy was 12,289 at the end of fiscal year 1973 and climbing rapidly. One prediction [Navy Times, 1974] would have the number rise as high as 30,000 by 1978. The figures for projected personnel strength for both men and women seem to fluctuate on an almost weekly basis, but there can be no doubt that the total number of women on active duty in the military is on the increase.

Some of the reasons for the increasing quotas for women in the military are: the cost of recruiting men has risen and is likely to remain high, there is an ample supply of qualified women volunteers available at a lower recruiting cost, and to meet the quotas necessary to maintain the force on an all-volunteer basis there doesn't seem to be any alternative. The pressures to bring more women into the military services to meet the All-Volunteer Force requirements will of necessity encourage their utilization on a wider variety of occupations by reason of their availability and their qualifications.

Another factor that is causing pressure for the further utilization of women in broader ranges of occupations has been the anticipated passage of the 27th Amendment to the Constitution (Equal Rights Amendment). The estimated

ratification of this Amendment in the next year or two has resulted in some advance planning on the part of industry, and can be considered another reason for the lifting of the previous restrictions on the training and utilization of women in various business and government positions. Further changes can be anticipated in occupational openings for women as the Equal Rights Amendment approaches ratification.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There has definitely been a change in the occupational role of women, especially married women, in American society over the last one hundred years. Whereas in the latter half of the nineteenth century women's occupations mainly involved motherhood, housekeeping and working with the husband in his trade or on the farm, there has been a change with women working outside the family enterprise before marriage, and later to work after the children were grown. More recently, women have begun to work outside the home during the child rearing years. Most of the occupations women engaged in with the exception of the war years, and until the last decade, were occupations that extended the background and experience of the family roles.

The reasons for changing to a paid employment role are many but the three main reasons are financial improvement for the family, changing technology resulting in a less than full time occupational role in homemaking, and education for women resulting in interests outside the homemaking role.

The current interest in different types of occupations for women can be related in part to the changed perception of what are acceptable occupations for women. Not everyone yet agrees that many of the occupations women have recently

gone into are "right and proper" and convention and tradition change slowly over time. However, it is apparent that women in this country are finding that occupations once classed as "masculine" are interesting, challenging, pay well, and on a supply/demand basis are becoming more and more available to them. Working in these fields has become more socially acceptable, jobs are available, and many women's perception of their role in society has changed to allow them to feel comfortable in previously unpopular occupations for women.

This is not to say that every woman should work outside the home for there will most likely always be a relatively large percentage of the women in this country who are quite happy and content in the homemaker role, and whose family circumstances allow them to not enter into paid employment. Nor is it to advocate that every woman should want to fly an airplane, drive heavy construction equipment or go to sea. What is important is that both men and women realize that there are many reasons why women work, and many reasons why they may want to work in non-traditional occupations for women. What many women are asking for is the opportunity to compete for jobs that appeal to them, and that can provide them the wage necessary to meet the demands of their family circumstances.

APPENDIX I

Officer Billets Held By Women in World War II

(As of 12/11/46)

Aviation

Aerological engineering
Aeronautical engineering
Air combat information
Air navigation gunnery instructor
Air transportation
Assembly and repair vocational training
Celestial navigation (air navigation)
Editor--Navy publications
Flight desk
Flight records
Link training
Photographic interpretation
Recognition
Recognition and gunnery
Radio-radar (administration)
Schedules
Special devices
Traffic control

Civil Engineering Corps

Design and maintenance
Sanitary engineer

Communications

Censorship (cable, postal, and telephone)
Coding
Communications (including CWO)
Courier
Cryptanalyst
Issuing
Postal
Radio
Registered publications
Telephone operations
Teletype operations

Intelligence

Area specialists
Language specialists
Publications research

Supply Corps

Accounting
Commissary
Contract termination
Disbursing
Incoming stores
Inventory control
Marketing (foods and provisions)
Nutritional research
Outgoing stores
Purchasing (material and equipment)
Ship's service
Statistical
Stock control
Storage
Supply
Transportation
Travel claims
War bonds

Legal

Claims attorney
Legal assistance
Legislative counsel assistant
Legislative liaison
Naval Courts and Boards rewrite specialists
Regulations consultant

Medical Service

Bacteriologist
Hematologist
Hygienist (dental)
Medical illustrator
Medical research
Occupational therapist
Parasitologist
Physiotherapist
Psychologist
Serologist
Physiologist

Medical Corps

Medical doctors (general and specialists)

General Line

Administrative assistant
Billet analyst
Cartographer
Chemical
Civil readjustment
Classification
Commissioned officer's mess
Demobilization
Education training
Educational services
Historical officer
Housing
Hydrographic
Insurance
Material (public works)
Machine record installation (IBM)
Navy Relief
Operations (ship movement, plotting, and routing)
Personnel (civilian and military)
Physical training
Public information
Security
Statistical
Technical editor and writer
Visual aids
Welfare and recreation

Dental Corps

Dentists

Engineering and Electronics

Electronics instructors
Project engineers
Radar technicians
Radio-radar material
Sonar technicians

[Source: Hancock, 271-274]

APPENDIX II

Ratings Held By Enlisted Women in World War II

(As of 12/11/46)

Seaman
Hospital apprentice
Pharmacist's mate
Aerographer's mate
Aviation machinist's mate
Aviation machinist's mate (instrument)
Aviation metalsmith
Parachute rigger
Radioman
Electrician's mate
Telegrapher
Storekeeper
Storekeeper D (disbursing)
Storekeeper T (technical)
Storekeeper V (aviation)
Yeoman
Electronic technician's mate
Aviation electronic technician's mate
Ship's cook
Ship's cook B (butcher)
Baker
Printer
Printer M (offset duplicating process)
Ship's serviceman L (laundryman)
Ship's serviceman T (tailor)
Ship's serviceman B (barber)
Aviation ordnanceman
Mailman
Specialist (C), classification interviewer
Specialist (E), recreation and welfare
Specialist (G), Aviation free gunnery instructor
Specialist (I), punched card accounting machine operator
Specialist (P), photographic specialist
Specialist (P) (ACR), aviation camera repairman
Specialist (Q), communications
Specialist (R), recruiter
Specialist (S), personnel supervisor-barracks administration
Specialist (T), teacher
Specialist (T) (LT), instructor-navigational aids
Specialist (T) (LCNT), instructor in celestial navigation aids
Specialist (W), chaplain's assistant
Specialist (X), pigeon trainer

Specialist (Y), control tower operator
Specialist (V), transport airman

Seaman Billets in the Waves in World War II

Bookkeeper
Typist
File clerk
Key-punch operator
Comptometer operator
Mechanical draftsman
Statistical draftsman
Statistical clerk
Cartographer
Research assistant
Librarian
Receptionist
Escort and messengers
Teletype operator
Switchboard operator
Elevator operator
Mimeograph operator
Multilith operator
Offset press operator
Assistant printer
Photostat operator
Developer of negatives
Photograph printer
Copy-camera operator
Photograph enlarger
Musical copyist
Hairdresser
Barber
Assistant master-at-arms in barracks
Line assistant
Laboratory technician
Chauffeur
Laundry worker
Commercial artist
Electrical draftsman
Accountant
Film projectionist
Linotype operator
Publications assembly worker
General office worker
Photographer
Varitypist
Ship's service clerk
Strikers for various petty officer ratings open to women

[Source: Hancock, 275-280]

APPENDIX III

Twenty Facts on Women Workers

1. Nine out of ten girls will work at some time in their lives.
2. A majority of women work because of economic need. About three-fifths of all women workers are single, widowed, divorced, or separated, or have husbands whose earnings are less than \$7,000 a year.
3. More than 35 million women are in the labor force; they constitute nearly two-fifths of all workers. Some 4.5 million women of minority races are in the labor force; they constitute more than two-fifths of all minority workers.
4. More than half of all women 18 to 64 years of age are workers.
5. About one-fourth of all women workers hold part-time jobs.
6. Women accounted for three-fifths of the increase in the civilian labor force in the last decade.
7. Labor force participation is highest among women 18 to 24 and 35 to 54 years of age; the median age of women workers is 36 years.
8. The more education a woman has, the greater the likelihood she will seek paid employment. More than 3 out of 5 women 45 to 54 years of age with 4 or more years of college are in the labor force.
9. The number of working mothers (women with children under 18) has increased about ninefold since 1940. They now number 13.0 million, an increase of 3.7 million in the last decade.
10. The 4.8 million working mothers with children under 6 in 1973 had 6.0 million children under 6; the estimated number of licensed day care slots is 920,000.
11. Women workers are concentrated in low-paying dead end jobs. As a result, the average woman worker earns less than three-fifths of what a man does, even when both work full time year round.

12. Unemployment was lowest for white adult males (2.9 percent) and highest for minority teenage girls (34.5 percent) in 1973.

White adult women	4.3 percent
Minority adult men	5.7 percent
Minority adult women	8.2 percent
White teenage boys	12.3 percent
White teenage girls	13.0 percent
Minority teenage boys	26.9 percent

13. Among all families, about 1 out of 8 is headed by a woman; almost 3 out of 10 black families are headed by women. Of all women workers, 1 out of 10 is a family head; 1 out of 5 minority women workers is a family head.
14. Among all poor families, more than 2 out of 5 are headed by women; almost 2 out of 3 poor black families are headed by women.*
15. It is frequently the wife's earnings which raise a family out of poverty. In husband-wife families 11 percent have incomes below \$4,000 if the wife does not work; 3 percent, when she does work.
16. The average woman worker is slightly better educated than the average man worker. Women have completed a median of 12.5 years of schooling; the median for men is 12.4 years.
17. Women are about two-fifths of all professional and technical workers but less than one-fifth of all nonfarm managers and administrators.
18. Women are 77 percent of all clerical workers but only 5 percent of all craft workers.
19. The median wage of full-time year-round private household workers was only \$2,365 in 1972. Effective May 1, 1974, most private household workers were covered by Federal minimum wage and overtime legislation.
20. Fully employed women high school graduates (with no college) have less income on the average than fully employed men who have not completed elementary school.

*Classified as poor were those nonfarm families of four with total income of less than \$4,275 in 1972.

[Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Social Statistics; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and Wage and Hour Division, Employment Standards Administration.]

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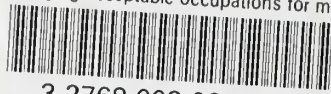
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